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# THE TEACHERS COLLEGE JOURNAL

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### THE DECEMBER COVER

"It's fun to read." The cover picture shows a student teacher with an elementary reading group at the Laboratory school, Indiana State Teachers College.

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# Public Support for the Teachers College

A recent edition of Life Magazine was devoted entirely to education. One portion of the edition was given to presenting an account of the Teachers College and the programs now in operation for the training of our teachers for this great responsibility of education.

The picture as presented was very disheartening and in many instances quite accurate. Teachers Colleges, in many areas, have been operating and continue to operate under deplorable conditions. Lack of facilities, lack of personnel, and lack of finances have all contributed to the undesirable state of affairs now existent in many of our institutions that provide our teachers.

But perhaps, an even greater contributing cause, and the most basic one, is the failure of our general public to realize the need and importance of sound and adequate teachers colleges. The public seems to take the training of teachers for granted. They do not realize the enormity of the task of providing a sufficient background of experiences and education that are necessary to produce a good teacher—

not one just skilled in the three R's and the lecture method, but one who understands children, his needs and interests, and realizes the role of education in a democratic society. This ideal teacher is not born; he is developed through the intensive program

The Teachers College Journal seeks to present competent discussions of professional problems in education, and toward this end restricts its contributing personnel to those of training and experience in the field. The Journal does not engage in re-publication practice, in the belief that previously published material, however creditable, has already been made available to the professional public through its original publication.

Manuscripts concerned with controversial issues are welcomed, with the express understanding that all such issues are published without editorial bias or discrimination.

Articles are presented on the authority of their writers, and do not necessarily commit the Journal to points of view so expressed. At all times, the Journal reserves the right to refuse publication if in the opinion of the Editorial Board an author has violated standards of professional ethics or journalistic presentation.

of the teacher training institutions.

Such a program cannot be adequate unless the public is willing to support the teachers colleges. The support needed is not only one of a financial nature, but one of favorable attitude as well. The teachers colleges must be held in high esteem by all citizens, and we must realize the importance of the teachers forthcoming from the teachers colleges. So much of our future depends entirely on our teachers in the public schools.

The teachers colleges, however, can not sit idly by waiting for this public support to materialize. The production of teachers must continue. Even more serious teacher shortages are inevitable in face of the mounting international tension. The outstanding

problems, then, facing the teachers colleges might be listed as follows: Recruitment of prospective teachers; Maintenance of high faculty standards and morale; Development of curricula which are broader and more useful; Expansion of facilities; and, last but not least, the Development of a more effective program of public relations. Once the

public is made to realize the value and importance of the teacher training institutions, the support necessary for the solution of the other problems will no doubt be achieved. It seems reasonable to assume that many of the existing conditions are the direct result of the failure of the public to correctly see the place of the teachers college in society. The Teachers College itself must lead the way in this responsibility.

CHARLES W. HARDAWAY  
Editor



# Kindergarten Training and Citizenship

Harry E. Elder

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One of the most encouraging items in our present day civilization is the widespread interest in education by parents and other individuals outside of the teaching profession. It is a recognition of the fact that education is second in importance to no



other activity and that the cooperation of both parents and teachers is necessary if the most worthwhile results are to be achieved.

Persons interested in the kindergarten and its possibilities are to be especially congratulated,

because they are usually among our most alert citizens with respect to education. They are among the people who realize that in our entire nation there are only three classes of assets of any genuine significance. They realize that natural resources, such as minerals, fertility of the soil, climate, lakes and streams constitute one class of assets; that our 150,000,000 inhabitants constitute our human assets; and that the training of these human beings constitute the third and most important class of assets in our nation. To realize the truth of this statement concerning the value of training, we need only imagine what our country would be like if it had the same natural and human resources but was completely lacking in the training and education of its citizens. Training and education bring civilization out of barbarism and savagery, develop our modern industrial system from the hunting and fishing stage of primitive days

and make men and women out of animals.

Training is not only the most significant resource of our nation; it is also the only one that may be increased by taking thought. God produces natural and human assets; but it is left for human endeavor to refine these natural and human resources into forms worthy and useful in a civilized world.

The educational product of the school in which we are most interested is that not measurable in dollars and cents; it is *training*—and no training is more important than that of the kindergarten or pre-school child. By comparing the success of children with and without kindergarten training in grades one to five, it has been found that those with one year of kindergarten training seemed "to have two and one-half times the chance of non-kindergarten pupils of being above average in a group consisting of both types of pupils." General conclusions may be stated as follows:

1. The benefits of one year of kindergarten training are noticeable through the first five grades of the elementary school. The better foundation acquired in these as a result of kindergarten training seems to warrant the assumption that the same benefits will continue to be noticeable throughout the school life of the pupil.

2. Success in reading in the elementary school is more closely related to kindergarten training than is success in penmanship and arithmetic.

3. Kindergarten training increases the chances for success in subjects

requiring as a basis the ability to read.

4. The standards of work in the elementary school may be raised by requiring all children to attend kindergarten before entering the first grade.

In addition to serving as an aid in later school work, pre-school training is important from the standpoint of the development of character and citizenship—the most significant outcomes of the entire educational process. Every teacher and every parent should realize that citizenship training starts at birth and continues through twenty-four hours of every day during the entire development of the individual. All phases of training and environment play significant roles.

Before any procedure for the achievement of citizenship can be outlined it is necessary to know what citizenship is. Many of our present population are merely inhabitants and not citizens. They live in our country and enjoy its privileges and protection but they feel no obligation for active allegiance in return. The great task confronting our nation is the making of its 150,000,000 inhabitants into 150,000,000 citizens. To accomplish this end countless intermediary objectives must be determined and definite activities selected through which all people who enjoy the opportunities of citizenship will become habitual contributors to the development and maintenance of which they enjoy. Until we secure a greater realization of this ideal, we shall have a large group of people who not only are poor citizens but who also, through cynicism and lack of understanding, prevent good citizens and efficient public servants from performing their duties according to the soundest policies.

Henry Watterson's editorial in the Louisville Courier Journal in 1920 entitled, "The Crime of Being President," is a good illustration of a condition calling for specific training in citizenship. He said in part, as follows:

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# A Study of Class Size Control at Ball State Teachers College

The following is a report of the Committee of Class Size Control at Ball State Teachers College, Muncie, Indiana. The committee is composed of L. S. Shively, chairman, Jane Cates, Mary Gray, Leo Hauptman, Donald Miller, Beth Vail.

The problem of class size control has various aspects and, in particular, it is related to other problems that confront us at this time. Some of these will be apparent in later paragraphs of this report.

The general principles which guided the committee in studying this problem and in arriving at conclusions may briefly be stated as follows:

1. The welfare of the student and the conditions that make optimum progress on his part possible should have first consideration. This is to be thought of in terms of providing those class conditions in which learning and self development can best take place.

2. Since we are preparing individuals to be worthy citizens and well qualified teachers, the teaching profession needs to be made attractive. This carries with it the idea that "wear and tear" on faculty members must be thought of—an idea which is also definitely related to efficiency and to the character of the product.

3. The financial cost of operating the college must be taken into account. It is apparent that at times, in dealing with the problem, this is a very important consideration. However, taking the long range view, the budget should not be the major consideration.

The committee on class size control in the limited time at its disposal has attempted to consider the problem from several points of view. First,

we looked at the literature available on the subject; second, we wrote to some eighteen state teachers colleges and appropriate Indiana colleges to find out the prevailing practices in the schools in this area; third, we analyzed the situation here at Ball State Teachers College taking the current winter quarter as a typical condition; fourth, we examined the requirements of recommendations of the accrediting agencies; and, lastly, in light of our necessarily incomplete study we arrived at some recommendations. We would like, therefore, to review some of our findings in this same order:

## I LITERATURE

There is a somewhat surprising dearth of literature available dealing with the problem of class size and much of it is not conclusive. Probably the most "scientific" and extensive studies were made by Earl Hudelson and others at the University of Minnesota. Their work was presented in a book *Class Size at the College Level* in 1928 and in other publications before and after this date. The conclusions of Hudelson support the idea that insofar as grades in objective tests are concerned or in the actual learning of facts it makes no difference what the class size is, at least from say 20 to 150 or even more. Incidentally much of the study was made in physics (more of this later).

Much has been written and more has been said about the Minnesota studies, both for and against. It is doubtful that Hudelson was very popular with his colleagues for awhile. But facts are facts and he seems to have a lot of facts. Many have pointed out, however, that the Minnesota studies did not consider

important aspects of class size problems such as:

- Wear and tear on teachers
- Lack of personal contacts
- Interest of students in further study of a subject
- Measurement of other factors than facts, etc.

It is worthy of note that the very universities which went in for very large undergraduate classes continued with very small graduate classes. Graduate students came into personal contact with the top men and undergraduates with graduate assistants.

A recent criticism of the Hudelson approach has been made by Clifford N. Wall, "Concerning the Teaching of Physics," *American Journal of Physics* 17: 263-66; May, 1949. A study was undertaken by M. H. Trytten, *Ibid.*, 15: 330-33; 1947 "The Undergraduate Origin of Physics Ph.D's, 1936-1945" which suggests one possible standard of measuring effective teaching in undergraduate physics. It is essentially a standard based upon the old Biblical quotation: "By their fruits, ye shall know them." In this report the undergraduate source institutions of all Ph.D's granted in physics in this country during the ten-year period from 1936 to 1945 are ascertained and classified. If it is assumed that one of the results of good teaching in physics is the encouragement of students to continue their work in physics. . . then this report serves to identify those undergraduate institutions where good teaching is presumably taking place."

The report disclosed that small colleges at least the better small colleges outranked the better big universities on any proportional basis of enrollment or size of physics staff. Mr. Wall who has had experience teaching physics in both the small college and the very large universities states "The general physics lectures may be better in the large university than in the small college. The students may learn more physics. They may do better on examinations, and the percentage of outstanding students may be larger. But when

they are through with the course, they do not choose to go on with physics. . . The size of the class is bound to influence the character of the relationship between the teacher and his students. With 20 or 30 students in the class, the relationship between the teacher and his students may be personal and vital; with 250 students in the class it must of necessity become impersonal. . . The student becomes a mere spectator instead of an active participant. This difference in point of view of the student is fundamental, but I doubt that it can be detected by the ordinary tests and examinations. If the student is to get the meaning and value out of a course in physics, or any other course for that matter, he must immerse himself in the stream, not stand watching on the bank. But this latter position appears to be precisely that taken by the great majority of students in a large lecture section."

Although the North Central Association abandoned the number 30 as the maximum class size a study of some fifty institutions in the North Central Association (see Melvin E. Haggerty, *The Evaluation of High Institutions*, Vol. II, *The Faculty*, Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1957 pp. 144-156), revealed that the prevailing practice in all of the institutions studied was to keep the classes in all departments under 30 and that the final average for all classes in the fifty institutions was only 21.

## II

### RESULTS OF INQUIRY INTO CLASS SIZE POLICY OF EIGHTEEN SCHOOLS

The following eighteen teachers colleges and liberal arts colleges in Indiana and surrounding states were contacted in an effort to determine prevailing practices with regard to class size and class size control.

Indiana State Teachers College, Terre Haute, Indiana; Northern Illinois State Teachers College, De Kalb, Illinois; Eastern Illinois State College, Charleston, Illinois; Western Illinois State College, Macomb,

Illinois; New York State College for Teachers, Albany, New York; Western Michigan College of Education, Kalamazoo, Michigan; Michigan State Normal College, Ypsilanti, Michigan; State Teachers College, LaCrosse, Wisconsin.

State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin; Western Kentucky State College, Bowling Green, Kentucky; Southwest Missouri State College, Springfield, Missouri; Iowa State Teachers College, Cedar Falls, Iowa; Colorado State College of Education, Greeley, Colorado; Central State College, Edmond, Oklahoma; East Central State College, Ada, Oklahoma; DePauw University, Greencastle, Indiana; Earlham College, Richmond, Indiana; Oberlin College, Oberlin, Ohio.

Replies were received from all schools except: State Teachers College, Milwaukee, Wisconsin.

None of these seventeen schools offers hard and fast formulas for determining class size. Fifteen state that Department Heads and Dean regulate class size. Some of the factors involved in making decisions regarding class size are listed in the letters. Eleven colleges mentioned nature of course. Eight mention size of classroom. Eight mention equipment and number of work stations. Two mention available teachers and number of students desiring course.

Colorado State College designated a minimum of five per class, with a possible change to eight to ten as minimum. DePauw University has an average of twenty six per class for this year. Earlham College, Western Kentucky State College, and Indiana State Teachers College state desired maximums of thirty-five to forty-five.

Central State College, Edmond, Oklahoma and East Central State College, Ada, Oklahoma consider class size to be a real problem and Indiana State Teachers College, Iowa State Teachers College, and East Central State College, Ada Oklahoma ask for summaries of our findings.

In addition to the colleges the Fed-

eral Security Agency, the National Education Association, and the American Council on Education were contacted. Bibliographies were received from them. They also asked for summaries of our findings.

## III

### CLASS SIZE PROBLEM AT BALL STATE

An analysis of the problem of class size control at Ball State Teachers, Winter Quarter, 1949-1950.

At the present time at Ball State the class size maximum is set by the Dean of the College and the Heads of the Departments have in some instances proposed a maximum number for classes which does not agree with that of the Dean. The final decision as to which classes shall be dropped if the enrollment falls short of the required minimum is made in a conference with the president. The present minimum is 10 for undergraduate classes and 6 for graduate students.

The accompanying chart of the class size picture at Ball State is perhaps self-explanatory. There are however, 64 classes which were permitted to exceed the maximum set by the Dean and in some extreme instances the classes ran over by as many as 13 and 14 students (these probably did so for special reasons and with the consent of the Head of the Department involved). Additional students may be enrolled in a class at the present time, beyond the Dean's quota, upon petition by the student to the Dean of Student Affairs. It is perhaps noteworthy also that in 58 cases the Heads of the departments preferred a lower limit than that set by the Dean. There were 144 classes in the winter quarter out of a total of 454 which had more than 35 students and of these 41 went over 45, and a total of 99 classes had 41 or more students. (see Chart 1).

The present class size limits as set by the Dean may reflect the present state of emergency and are no doubt a realistic indication of student pressures for certain courses which cannot otherwise be met with the present instructional staff. However, in view

of the state requirement it seems unfortunate that there are class sizes set as high as 60 and that there are 55 which are now set at over 45. There are, in addition, 153 which are now set at the state maximum of 45. (See Chart II).

#### IV REQUIREMENTS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE ACCREDITING AGENCIES

##### NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGES AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS

Perhaps due to the influence of the Minnesota studies the North Central Association dropped its regulation of 50 as the maximum class size March 17, 1952. Another factor involved,

no doubt, was the fact that the larger universities were not living up to the rule anyway.

##### INDIANA DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION

The State of Indiana has the following regulation with respects to class size: State of Indiana, Teacher Education and Certification, No. 148, 1945, Page 70. G. Size of Classes:

Except in certain drill subjects, not more than 45 students may be enrolled in any one class, and an enrollment of not more than 50 is preferable; provided, however, that in case the number in a class exceeds 45 and the authorities of the institution deem it undesirable under the cir-

cumstances to reduce the size of the class, the president of the institution may submit the case to the Director of Teacher Education for decision. In accrediting colleges and universities the State Board of Education will take into consideration the spirit displayed by the school in adhering to this requirement.

Ball State Teachers College must make an Annual Report to the State Superintendent of Public Instruction as follows, in part:

#### XIV. Schools for Observation and Student Teaching

6. Number of class enrollments above forty-five. . . . .
- Were these approved by the State Department. . . . .

(See Bulletins No. 94, pp. 50-51 and 148.)

From these statements it would seem that state Schools are expected to keep within the 45 limit and work toward an enrollment of not more than 50.

#### V RECOMMENDATIONS

*It is not easy or perhaps desirable to set up rigid requirements for establishing maximum or minimum class sizes which should be automatically enforced.*

(1) Class sizes should be determined only after there has been agreement with the Dean, the Head of the Department, and the instructor. In some instances the entire staff of a department may need to discuss the matter. In cases of disagreement, the question shall be referred to the President for decision.

(2) Once the maximum has been agreed to, especially in those cases where the maximum for good and sufficient reasons is lower than the general average, students should not be permitted to enroll beyond that limit.

(3) There are special considerations which automatically influence class size such as: room capacity; laboratory equipment; work stations available; nature of the course; etc.:

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CHART I  
DISTRIBUTION OF CLASS SIZE  
(Inc. Saturday and Evening Classes)  
WINTER 1950

DEPT.	ART	BUS. ED.	EDUCATION	ENGLISH	FOR. LANG.	HOME EC.	IND. ARTS	LIB. SCI.	MATH.	MIL. SCI.	MUSIC	OR.	PHYS. ED.	SCIENCE	SOC. SCI.	TOTAL
OVER 45		5	11	5					2	2	5		7	2	4	42
41-45	4	6	8	7					5		7		5	7	7	54
36-40	4	4	7	17							1		2	5	8	48
31-35	5	4	5	9		5	2		2		2	1	5	4	5	45
26-30	2	8	5	6	1	2	4		4	1	2		7	8	2	50
21-25	6	8	2	5	1	5	4		2	4	1	1	11	12	2	61
16-20	1	2	5	5	5	5	5	2			6		14	9	4	58
11-15	2	5	2	7	6	1	2	1	2	4	2		6	4	4	48
6-10	1	5	2	5	5	5	4			2			6		2	29
1-5	1		2	4	8	1	4		1							21
																454

#### CLASSES WHICH EXCEEDED THE DEAN'S QUOTA

By 1	4		4	5			2				1	2				16
By 2			1	4		1	2				5	1	1			15
By 3		2	1	5					1				1	1		11
By 4	2	2	2	2									1	1		10
By 5				5			1		1				1			6
By 9				1												1
By 11													1			1
By 15													2			2
By 14			1													1
																64

#### DEPT. HEADS PREFERRED QUOTA LOWER THAN DEAN'S

2	12	7	0	0	1	6	0	5	0	0	0	0	0	7	0	58
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# Practices of Colleges and Universities Concerning Graduate Training of Faculty Members Within the Employing Institution

Robert H. Koenker

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Ball State Teachers College  
Muncie, Indiana

Faculties of colleges and universities are being urged continually to strive for additional education and higher degrees. This presents somewhat of a problem to those teaching full time within an institution which is hesitant to permit such faculty members to obtain the further education within the local institution.

The purpose of this study was to discover the practices of institutions of higher learning relative to granting full-time faculty members the privilege of (1) obtaining an advanced degree from the employing institution (2) taking graduate courses from the employing institution to meet the course requirements for advanced standing on the salary schedule and (3) taking graduate courses from the employing institution to be applied on an advanced degree at another institution. An attempt was also made to discover changes since 1930, if any, in policy relative to these three foregoing points.

The great increase in the number of faculty members in institutions of higher learning coupled with the ever increasing requirements for advanced applicable training for college teachers makes the problem of this study of some significance.

This study was limited to the colleges and universities in United States offering graduate training leading to both the master's and doctor's degrees.

In April, 1950, questionnaires were

sent to the 96 American colleges and universities offering graduate work leading to both the master's and doctor's degrees. The list of these colleges and universities was taken from page 59 of *American Universities and Colleges*, 1948.<sup>1</sup> Two other colleges which offered graduate training leading to the doctor's degree for the first time in 1949 and not included in this list were added. The following questions were included in the questionnaire:

1. Does your institution permit full time faculty members the privilege of earning an advanced degree from your institution?

2. Does your institution permit full time faculty members the privilege of taking graduate courses at your institution to meet the course requirements for advanced standing on the salary schedule?

3. Does your institution permit full time faculty members the privilege of taking graduate courses at your institution to be applied on an advanced degree at another institution?

4. If there has been a change in your policy relative to any of these points since 1930, please indicate the approximate date of change.

Seventy-nine (82%) of the 96 colleges and universities returned the questionnaire. Of these 79, two had

<sup>1</sup>American Council on Education, *American Universities and Colleges*, 1948. Washington, D. C., 1948.

discontinued graduate training leading to the doctor's degree and four of the institutions stated that they employed only those holding the Ph.D. degree. Therefore, this study will be based on 73 (78%) of the 94 colleges and universities offering graduate training leading to both the master's and doctor's degree.

## FINDINGS

In response to the question "Does your institution permit full-time faculty members the privilege of earning an advanced degree from your institution?", 63 (86%) of the colleges and universities included in this study grant full-time faculty members the privilege of working toward advanced degrees at the employing institution. This privilege is restricted to the rank of instructor or below in 45 (72%) of the 63 institutions. In only 10 institutions (14%) were faculty members not permitted to earn an advanced degree from the employing institution.

Concerning the second issue, "Does your institution permit full-time faculty members the privilege of taking graduate courses at your institution to meet the course requirements for advanced standing on the salary schedule?", only 34 (47%) of the 73 institutions had provisions in the salary schedule to grant increased pay for graduate work completed beyond an advanced degree. Twenty-four (71%) of these 34 institutions permitted faculty members to take graduate courses from the employing institution to meet the requirements for advanced standing on the salary schedule while 10 (29%) of the 34 institutions did not approve of faculty members taking graduate courses from the employing institution to meet the salary schedule course requirements.

Question three read, "Does your institution permit full-time faculty members the privilege of taking graduate courses at your institution to be applied on an advanced degree at another institution?" The results on this item were: sixty-five (89%) of the 73 institutions permitted faculty members to take graduate courses

(Continued on page 63)

# An Analysis of the Teacher Training Needs Of Industrial Arts Teachers In Indiana\*

Wayne E. Schomer

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Terre Haute, Indiana

The need for a study of the training background of industrial arts teachers in Indiana became apparent during the summer of 1937 at which time a group of some 35 teachers were called together on the campus



of Indiana University to write a state course of study for industrial arts. During the summer the director was constantly taxed with the problem of encouraging the participants to write in terms of the needs of the students rather than in terms of their own preparation. Many of the participants commented on their favorable attitude toward a broad program of industrial arts for the junior and senior high schools, but also expressed their feeling of inadequacy of training to cope with such a program.

Later, the need for such a study was again suggested when the Department of Industrial Arts at a teachers college decided to revise the offerings of the department. It became apparent during a series of meetings that the curricular revision would be greatly colored by the opinions of the departmental members as to what the training needs of teachers were believed to be, rather than what the needs actually were as expressed by the teachers in the field.

\*The following article is a digest of Doctoral Dissertation of Mr. Schomer, completed at Indiana University.

Persons interested in education have for some time been somewhat critical of the narrowness of many programs of industrial arts now in operation in the junior and senior high schools of Indiana. A number of factors contribute to the narrowness of these programs, such as facilities, influence of major industries in a community, philosophy of the school and the community regarding industrial arts, and the training and background of the teacher. This study considers but one factor, that of the training and background of the teacher, and attempts to determine whether or not this training and background are adequate to meet the present day demands made upon the industrial arts teachers of our public schools.

In this study a narrow program of industrial arts is considered to be the most traditional type of program with limited offerings, in many cases merely woodwork and/or drawing. A broad program of industrial arts would include samplings of a number of the arts and crafts. Somewhere there must be a sane approach to the problem of offerings to be considered in an ideal situation. While it was not the purpose or intent of this study to propose such a program it does point to the importance of the training and background of the teacher as they establish or affect the offerings of his industrial arts program.

Several approaches to the study were considered. Following numerous conferences with authorities in the field of industrial arts in Indiana and members of the School of Edu-

cation at Indiana University the following procedure was decided upon.

Since most of the data needed for the study were to come from the teachers of industrial arts, the questionnaire technique appeared to be the best device for collecting information. The items used in the questionnaire were classified into three categories, namely, personal, philosophy and general professional interests, and teacher training needs or deficiencies. The use of these classifications greatly facilitated the preparation, elimination, and tabulation of various items.

The first draft of the questionnaire was submitted to some of the leaders in the field of industrial arts education in Indiana for suggestions. The final form of the questionnaire included many of the fine suggestions made by persons interested in the study.

The questionnaire was sent to all industrial arts teachers listed in the State Directory of Indiana Schools. The directory listed teaching combinations and addresses. One follow-up card was sent to those who did not return the questionnaire within four weeks after it was sent. Many of the questionnaires were collected by personal interviews with the teachers. Approximately 40% of the 778 questionnaires were returned. The smallest percentage of returns came from the small schools with enrollments up to 99 students.

In order to have some basis for comparison the schools from which the questionnaires were returned were classified in four groups according to the enrollment, namely, up to 99, 100-199, 200-399, and 400 and up.

Aside from the questionnaires, valuable information was found in the reports of the state supervisors.

State supervision of industrial arts teachers was authorized by the state department of public instruction in Indiana in 1944. Two supervisors were appointed, each devoting half time to the work. One member of the industrial arts faculty of each of the two state teachers colleges served as supervisor in his respective section



of the state. The reports kept by these supervisors contain such information about the general problems of industrial arts in Indiana.

The reports of the supervisors were reviewed in order to get opinions regarding needs of the teachers as expressed by persons who had personally visited many of the teachers contributing data to this study. These reports by the supervisors were of the descriptive type which made highly accurate tabulation extremely difficult. Therefore, the reports were used in this study to provide a few general opinions of the supervisors which gave some background information that contributed to the interpretation of the data collected.

The data collected through this investigation indicated that there are certain fundamental teacher training needs as expressed by the teachers of industrial arts in Indiana. Many other needs are expressed by minority groups and, even though the data concerning these needs are inconclusive, they should not be ignored by those planning college curricular revision.

Apparently some authorities in industrial arts education in Indiana have been and are presently aware of the shortcomings and needs of the public school industrial arts teacher in Indiana. The public school teachers, in turn, believe that the colleges have not provided them with the necessary training to meet their present-day needs. The fact that evidence may be found in many colleges' catalogues that the "old-line" areas of woodworking and drawing are still receiving major emphasis by departments of industrial arts substantiates to some extent the viewpoint taken by the public school teacher. It is also interesting to note that the state supervisors of industrial arts indicates that a large percentage of the schools they visit should offer a broader industrial arts program, while a large percentage of teachers reported that plastics, electricity, and some of the arts and crafts would be included in their programs if they were qualified to teach these areas. In other words,

the industrial arts program in the public schools would probably be broader had the teachers received a broader training in college.

In order that the teacher training needs of industrial arts teachers in Indiana may be more definitely defined the following findings are presented from the data collected through the investigation.

1. Public junior and senior high schools of Indiana, in general, should offer a broader program of industrial arts. According to the state supervisors' reports of public school visitation, less emphasis should be given to woodwork and drawing in many of the schools visited. The supervisors recommended the general shop organization for many of the smaller schools which were operating on a unit shop basis. An analysis of the reports of the state supervisors reveals that limited space, limited equipment, and, most important, limited training on the part of the teacher causes contributing to the narrow programs offered in a number of the schools visited.

2. More than 50 per cent of the teachers who had had the courses in college indicate that sculpture, print making, pottery, weaving, ceramics and air transportation have not been important in the teaching they have done. Wood carving, jewelry, farm shop, and art metal also ranked as relatively unimportant. Fewer than five per cent of the teachers who had had the courses in college indicate that cabinet making, mechanical drawing, machine drawing, sheet metal, and woodwork have not been important in the teaching they have done. It is evident that the "old-line" areas have served well the past and are serving well the present programs of industrial arts. However, with a needed change of emphasis as expressed by the teachers and by the state supervisors, provisions should be made in teacher training curricula to insure the importance of the arts and crafts, as well as some of the newer industrial arts areas, in the future secondary school industrial arts programs.

3. More teachers of industrial arts

prefer to teach woodwork and mechanical drawing than any of the other areas. Electricity is listed last among the major areas as a preferred subject. Sixty-nine and seven-tenths per cent of the teachers indicate a preference for teaching either woodwork or drawing. Arts and crafts are not listed by a single individual as preferred areas for teaching.

It is possible that the interest of the teachers, as indicated by their choice of areas they prefer to teach, has been conditioned by the training received on the college level. Relatively few teachers of industrial arts in Indiana have taken courses in electricity comparable either in number or content to the courses offered in woodwork and drawing. An analysis of the college catalogues of one teacher training institution reveals that electricity, as a subject area, was not offered to any extent prior to 1945. Plastics, ceramics, and many of the arts and crafts have received very little emphasis by the college industrial arts departments. Perhaps a change in emphasis on the college level, in regard to industrial arts offerings, would bring about a corresponding change of emphasis in the public school offerings and would provide for broader interests of the students who are preparing to be teachers.

4. Less than three per cent of the industrial arts teachers reporting have taught woodwork, mechanical drawing, or printing without having had college courses in these areas. More than 15 per cent of the teachers indicate they have taught sheet metal, welding, and electricity without having had training in those areas. Electricity is listed by more teachers (22.5 per cent) as having been taught without college training than is true for any other industrial arts area.

Thirty per cent of the teachers indicate they would like to add plastics to their present industrial arts offerings but do not have the necessary training. Ceramics, welding, electricity, leather work, and jewelry are listed by more than 10 per cent of the teachers as areas they would like



to add to their present offerings if they had been given the necessary training.

By combining those teachers who have taught areas without training with those who would offer the areas but do not because of their lack of training, an indication is given as to the need of offerings these areas to a greater extent on the college level. The percentage of teachers indicating a need for training in the various areas is as follows: plastics, 44.7 per cent; electricity, 37.9 per cent; welding, 29.5 per cent; ceramics, 21.2 per cent; sheet metal, 21.1 per cent; leather work, 20.5 per cent. Plastics, which is listed by nearly one-half of the teachers reporting as an area they needed in their college training, is not listed in any catalogue of the teacher training institutions in Indiana, as late as the 1947-48 school year, as an area offered by the industrial arts department.

5. Over 50 per cent of the responding teachers say that 10 out of the 50 shop courses and 18 out of the 20 professional courses listed did not adequately prepare them to teach industrial arts courses on the junior or senior high school level. Woodwork and mechanical drawing are checked most frequently as areas in which the teachers say they were adequately prepared to teach. Design, electricity, sheet metal, plastics, general metal, and arts and crafts are checked most frequently as being courses in which the teachers were not adequately prepared to teach. Again it is evident that teachers of industrial arts are not so broadly trained in shop areas as they need to be if they are to offer a broad program of industrial arts.

Of the professional courses listed, only the courses, "History and Theory of Industrial Arts" and "Philosophy of Industrial Arts Education," are checked by less than 50 per cent of the teachers reporting as not having been adequate in their preparation for teaching. All of the other professional courses were checked as inadequate. Courses having to do with organizations, preparation of in-

structional materials, methods, tests and measurements, and educational and vocational guidance are listed by approximately 60 per cent or more of the teachers reporting as being inadequate in preparing them for teaching.

The two categories under which teachers indicate their inadequate preparation in an area are "Important in teaching, but was not organized and/or taught so as to be practical," and "Important in teaching and was well organized and taught, but additional courses were needed." A larger percentage of teachers in every case where a significant number of teachers indicate inadequate preparation attribute the inadequacy to an insufficient number of courses, rather than to the fact that the courses were poorly organized or taught. This would indicate that improvement of the content and methods of teaching college industrial arts classes is important, but not so important as a redistribution of the time allotted for the various courses in better meeting the needs of industrial arts teachers.

6. Data collected through this investigation indicate that the time element is important in planning not only the content of each course, but also in planning the total curriculum.

Teachers of industrial arts in Indiana are of the general opinion that one college term (one course for 12 weeks) is not sufficient preparation for teaching a skill subject on any grade level or in any type of shop organization. The teachers need more training in an area to teach on the high school level than on the junior high school level and more training in an area to teach in a unit shop type of organization than in a general shop type of organization.

7. Much time could no doubt be saved and more evenly distributed if most repetition of work in industrial arts college classes was eliminated.

One out of every five teachers contributing to this study had taken a course in his college industrial arts work that repeated or overlapped a similar course he had taken on the high school level. Courses that are greatest offenders in this respect are

woodwork, reported by 19.1 per cent of the teachers, and mechanical drawing, reported by 17.4 per cent of the teachers.

The problem of overlapping and repeating of courses is serious enough to be given consideration by persons in charge of the teacher training of industrial arts teachers. Because of the wide variation of background of the college student in regard to his high school industrial arts training, some provisions should be made for evaluating the background of each individual. Once an evaluation is made, the college student could be started on a level that would challenge his knowledge and ability.

As a result of the findings of this investigation, the author submits the following recommendations:

1. Colleges preparing industrial arts teachers primarily for Indiana should recognize the disinterest and lack of training on the part of many public school industrial arts teachers in areas other than the "old-line" areas of woodwork and drawing.

2. The content, methods of teaching, and amount of time being devoted to college industrial arts shop courses should be re-evaluated. Generally speaking, a prospective industrial arts teacher should not be permitted to qualify to teach an area as one area of a general shop until he has had the equivalence of not less than one college term (12 weeks) of training in that area. A student planning to teach in a high school unit shop should have not less than three terms (36 weeks) of training in the area in which he prefers to teach. Provisions should be made for crediting an individual in a skill shop subject for similar work taken in the junior or senior high school and for industrial experience in any particular area. The talent and proficiency of the individual should also be considered. This provision would greatly reduce the amount of overlapping and repeating of courses by college students who have had previous experience.

(Continued on page 62)

# It Pays to Investigate

Lonzo Jones

Director of Student Personnel Services  
Indiana State Teachers College  
Terre Haute, Indiana

At Indiana State Teachers College we have developed a method of: (1) identifying each student, (2) estimating natural normal levels of learning (in the future referred to as expectancy levels, (3) of comparing his achievement, quarter by quarter, with his expectancy level, and (4) of follow-up interviews to discover causes of discrepancies between expectancy levels and achievement levels.

During Orientation Week just prior to registration in the Fall Term, beginning freshmen take a series of tests, the results of which are to be used in individualizing our counseling program and indirectly the educational program of the student. The tests administered are: (1) the American Council on Education Psychological Examination, as a measure of the intellectual capacities involved in learning at the college level; (2) the Iowa High School Content Examination, as a measure of the four major areas of high school learning—math, science, English, and social studies—this test measures some aspects of pre-college learning and indirectly the student's mastery of learning methods; (3) the Placement Test which is used by the English Department in assigning students to sections; (4) the Nelson-Denny Reading Test which supplements the evidence of the American Council test and furnishes a screening device for identifying students who may need remedial reading; and (5) the Stevenson-Millet Test of Social Usage which is used as a basis for a social orientation course, meeting once a week for a quarter.

The first two tests mentioned

above are used as a basis for estimating the student's natural normal level of learning. The method used to convert these two measurements into estimated indices does not involve a very complicated statistical process; yet with a good counselor program correlations between expectancy levels and achievement levels have run consistently between 65 and 80.

The raw scores on the two tests are converted into percentile ranks using the national norms supplied by the publisher. Each individual student has a percentile rank on the American Council test and a percentile on the High School Content. These two percentiles are added together and divided by two on the assumption that the college aptitudes measured by the two tests,—intellectual capacity and levels of achievement in pre-college work,—are of equal value as predictors of further learning. The resulting quotient is assumed to be the percentile level, at which the student would most likely learn under normal learning conditions in college. In order to designate this percentile level in terms of the grade index it is necessary to set up a table listing the index of each percentile from the 99th to the 1st.

The table used at Indiana State Teachers College was made up many years ago from a distribution table of more than 1,100 freshman students at the University of Iowa. It could be done in any college by taking a sampling of students large enough to eliminate all likelihood of sampling error. Probably 500 students would

be sufficient but still better would be 1,000 students. No revision of the table of indices at Indiana State Teachers College has been made, but the scale used at the University of Iowa has been converted to the index which is used here at Indiana State. Thus, a straight "A" instead of being a 4.00 point average as was used at Iowa, is 1.00 here. This is usually written without the decimal point. A grade of "B" instead of 3.00 is a .75 index; an average of "C" is .50; and average of "D" is .25. Grades of half "C" and half "D" give a .375 index. All "F"s" would give an index of 0. On the table there is an index for each percentile rank from 1 to 100. Table A is abstracted from it.

TABLE A

I	II
Average percentile	Predicted index
5	16
10	24
25	38
50	50
75	61
90	74
95	80
100	100

As prospective freshmen students file their Admission Blanks each of them is assigned to a professor, who teaches in the department in which the student's indicated major interest lies, who is to be his lower division counselor. Thus, in the majority of cases our freshmen students have as a counselor, a faculty member who is entirely familiar with the field of learning in which this student is interested, has had experience in teaching other students and seeing them through to graduation, and who knows some of the requirements and hazards in that student's field of interest. Likewise, in most instances the student is in this counselor's class four days a week for his first quarter. Thus the counselor has an opportunity to observe this student's



"mind-at-work" in a course fundamental to his major field of interest.

Early in the term, the counselor is sent the *autobiography* and the *principal's rating sheet* which are a part of the student's Admission Blank. The counselor is supplied with the results of all the tests involved in the battery of five tests referred to above. In addition to this, early in the quarter the counselor is furnished a type-written list of his counselees on a form which provides columns for recording the student's estimated index, his first quarter mid-term index, and the index earned in each of his first three quarters. The following table is illustrative:

TABLE B  
ADVISOR'S SUMMARY SHEET

Student's Name	Pred.	Mid	1st	2nd	3rd
A	41	19*	58		
B	78	91	100		
C	52	56	50		
D	44	56	50		
E	39	56	50		
F†	61	56	44*		
G	55	81	75		
H	50	BB	63		
I	45	63	56		
J	53	50	63		
K	51	33*	50		
L	31	33	25		
M	76	75	75		
N	62	38*	38*		
O	48	58	33*		

† Failed Phonetics 242

Table B, above, is a complete listing of all freshmen assigned to one counselor in elementary education, which illustrates superior results. It will be observed that in the column representing mid-term and in the column representing first quarter indices occasionally a star appears. This designates a student achieving too far below expectancy—"Follow-up analysis and remedial work is needed." Thus, Student A with an expectancy level of 41 was achieving an index of 19 at mid-term, but through the counselor's help and her own determined efforts the first quarter's index was 58 almost up to her

expectancy level. Under the first quarter column student N and O are both below the levels of expectancy quite seriously at the end of the first quarter. These students were sent a letter from the office of the Coordinator of Student Personnel, which read as follows:

"Dear Miss N:

Yesterday afternoon I reviewed with Miss G, your counselor, your grades for the first term. I had expected at least a "C" average from you on a full schedule of four courses. Your record shows, however, that you completed only three courses with grades of "C", "D", and "D" respectively. This is not a satisfactory record. Will you please see me next week to review this situation?

Sincerely yours,"

Both girls responded to the letter.

Student N is the only child in a family in which the father has a steady adequate salary to support his family and to pay the daughter's expenses in college. She is well-groomed, very attractive, and in the interview reflected the intellectual capabilities shown by the estimated index of 62. She was popular in high school, had participated extensively in school affairs, was on the school paper, the annual, in plays, in music groups, and liked swimming. However, she had maintained a good scholastic average and ranked in the upper fourth in her graduating class. When she entered college her popularity followed her. She was pledged to one of the good sororities on campus; but in making the transition, both to the heavier requirements of college work and to the bustle of college social groups she had failed to allow herself sufficient study time to master her school work as effectively as her scores on the aptitude test predicted. She is now scheduling her time more closely. Her faculty counselor will continue contacts with her until she is up to a "C" average or better. She has the capacity to do better work and the chances are that she will do it without much trouble.

Student O, however, presents quite a different situation. She, too, was

an attractive, carefully groomed girl of eighteen. Her expectancy level was not as strong as that of Student N. She had graduated from a technical high school in the upper tenth of her class. The kind of learning there had been more objective than that required of her in college. Her father is an immigrant from the Balkan area of Europe. Her mother did not finish high school but was married when quite young and has had nine children, seven of whom are living. Two of them are living away from home and making their own expenses. In addition to her own children, the mother has in her home another small child that they are caring for. The father is a coal miner and during the past year has been employed only 80 days and earned only a few dollars over \$1,000. With this there is house rent to pay and eight people to feed and clothe. Of necessity, this girl has sought employment to the amount of some twenty hours a week in a downtown store and since she is the oldest girl at home she has the responsibility of helping with the care of the home and of the younger children. She was permitted to reduce her schedule to three courses during the first term. But even so, it did not give her sufficient time and energy to master her work successfully.

When she conferred with me she had entered college because she wanted to be a teacher and thought she would do well at it. Her high school grades had been good and she liked children and had had experience in handling them; but, she added, "I am beginning to get discouraged with myself." She said of her mother, "She is the most patient, understanding and courageous person I have ever known."

It is easy to see how an understanding of the handicaps under which this girl is going to college and the courage and understanding which she here reveals justified all the assistance that a personnel division can give to help further her educational training. She is trying to carry four courses and probably should carry



only three. She is compensating for lack of study space and quiet in her home by scheduling her study time in the college library. She must continue to earn money. Likewise she must continue to help her family at home. But if these experiences are accepted, as she does accept them, as her responsible duties they will be educative factors in the personality of a teacher who later must understand all types of children who come into her school.

Most of the forty-three counselors' comparative records are similar to the one reported in Table B. However, there is one instance at the other extreme.

TABLE C  
ADVISOR'S SUMMARY SHEET

Student's Name	Pred.	Mid.	1st	2nd	3rd
A <sup>1</sup>	68	44*	63		
B <sup>2</sup>	48	00*	08*		
C <sup>3</sup>	48	31*	25*		
D <sup>4</sup>	75	37*	53		
E	43	25*	19*		
F	77	63	38*		
G	61	50	38*		
H	56	31*	50		
I	51	50	50		
J	53	31*	17*		
K <sup>5</sup>	58	33*	25*		
L	51	42	38*		
M	54	38*	31*		
N	52	33*	00*		
O	26	cc	44		
P	55	69	58		
Q	36	50	44		
R	90	94	94		

<sup>1</sup>"F" in English—Mr. Payne

<sup>2</sup>I wrote

<sup>3</sup>Plans to go to Purdue

<sup>4</sup>"F" in English—Mr. Payne

<sup>5</sup>Transfer to Ind. Arts

As will be observed, this counselor was assigned students many of whom have superior ability. He had had experience in counseling for three years previous. Yet, for some reason he failed to follow through the recommended program of weekly contacts with his students and, in fact, ac-

cording to the testimonies of several who were in the personnel office disparaged the techniques recommended to assist the student in becoming adjusted to the demands of college learning. He brushed aside the time sheet by which the student learns to control the use of his time, and discouraged the weekly conference.

It will be observed that a very large proportion of this counselor's students failed to achieve at their natural normal level of learning. Student N failed all of his work and discontinued school. Students B and J have been continued on probation. Students K and M, both of superior ability, have been transferred to another counselor. The following letter to the new counselor contains much information:

"Dear Counselor B:

This term you have in your Commerce 201 class at 1:00 two freshmen, K and M, both of whom have now indicated that they wish to major in the department of Commerce. Both of these boys commute from Farmville some twenty miles away and both live at home on a farm; hence, they have some home duties in addition to the time consume in traveling back and forth to school.

Both of these boys are of superior ability (M being at the 70th percentile on the ACE, and K at the 81st). Last term M made an index of 31 and K an index of 25. They did not, however, know their counselor nor did they get their study habits and use of time under control.

I have talked with them and believe both of them are really worthwhile young fellows. I would like to ask you to give some attention to them as counselees of yours and since you have them in class you will have an opportunity to observe the quality of their work. I believe they will repay handsomely any attention or time given to them.

Sincerely yours,"

In another instance a student with a pre-med program and with an expectancy level of 65 who had graduated 3rd in a class of 170 showed up with an index of 43; 3 "C's", 1 "D" at the end of the first term. The interview with him was most revealing.

The following letter summarizes the situation:

"Dear Mr. A:

I have conferred with TM, one of your counselees, a pre-med student who made an index of only 43 during the first term. I am more than pleased with the outcome of the conference. M is a superb candidate for the pre-med work, and is not intending to give it up. He has high regard for you and your teaching. I hope you will take time to get to know him personally.

His father came to Terre Haute just this past year as comptroller of the Blank Company whose new offices have just recently been completed. He brought with him four children of whom this boy is the oldest. The mother did not come, and only this last month the parents completed their legal divorcement.

Yet, here is a boy with a remarkably fine personality, a fine physique (played on the freshmen football team this last fall) and has the intellectual capacity and a high school record back of him (ranked 3rd in a class of 170) to qualify for entering medicine, and in my opinion has all the characteristics to make a fine physician.

Most cordially yours,"

In reviewing more than 600 individual freshman records with the counselors after the end of the first quarter some 40 students of near average or superior ability were found whose indices were below the "C" average which we require for graduation or more than one grade below their own level of expectancy. All of these students were requested to come to the personnel office for a review of the circumstances involved. The illustrations given above show the uniformly fine character of the students and the ease with which the circumstances surrounding their difficulties were talked of and mutually understood. It is too early to estimate what the results of the interviews and remedial planning will accomplish in each individual instance; but from the point of view of knowing what is happening to the individual and of establishing a remedial program early enough in his career for it to make some difference, it seems that this policy is very worth-while.

# Legal Status of Religion in Indiana Common Schools

The following report was compiled by a committee of graduate students at I.S.T.C. The committee consisted of Carlos Watson, Samuel Nisbit, John Kyle, and L. B. Anderson.

The powerful role played by religion in the development of civilization cannot be denied. Much of the effect exercised by religion upon world history came through the church's virtual control of education until comparatively recent times.

In our own colonial period the schools were chiefly church-controlled. The Massachusetts School Law<sup>1</sup> of 1647 proposed the establishment of schools for the expressed purpose of circumventing the Devil. The Puritan fathers accused Satan of deluding the people by having the Bible printed in unknown languages, Hebrew and Greek, and then by influencing people to avoid the labor involved in learning those languages.

From the inception of the United States of America, a majority of the citizens have favored a complete separation of church and state in governmental affairs. That idea has been rather consistently followed in the development of public schools. Recent events, however, have focused national attention upon the controversy still existing in the field of education.

## I

### CONSTITUTIONAL PROVISIONS CONCERNING RELIGION IN EDUCATION

Any practice, rule, regulation, law, or court decision, if properly challenged, must defend itself on the

<sup>1</sup>Henry W. Holmes, "Our Debt to the Devil: How the Puritan Belief in Satan Helped to Establish Public Education in America," *School and Society*, 67:232, March 27, 1948.

basis of constitutionality. It must prove that it operates within the limitations set up by the highest laws of the state and/or nation. Those highest laws, for Indiana, are incorporated in the Constitution of Indiana and in the Constitution of the United States.

Therefore, a study on the legal status of religion in Indiana schools would be incomplete if it omitted the constitutional limitations imposed upon religion in education.

### *The Constitution of the United States*

The subject of religion is covered in the First Amendment, which was adopted in 1791. In 1868, with the adoption of the Fourteenth Amendment, the provisions of the First Amendment were made applicable to the states.

### *The First Amendment:*

Congress shall make no law respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof; or abridging the freedom of speech, or the press; or the right of the people peaceably to assemble, and to petition the government for a redress of grievances.<sup>2</sup>

### *Section 1 of the Fourteenth Amendment:*

All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No state shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States; nor shall any State deprive any person of life, liberty, or property, without due process of law; nor deny to any person within its jurisdiction the equal protection of the laws.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>2</sup>G. L. Blough and C. H. McClure, *Fundamentals of Citizenship* (New York: Laidlaw Brothers, 1940), p. 397.

<sup>3</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 401.

*Interpretations given the First and Fourteenth Amendments.* There is no common ground upon which the various interpretations of these amendments can meet. Authorities on constitutional law have drawn implications ranging from extremely broad to extremely narrow. One of the broadest and most authoritative interpretations was given by Mr. Justice Black in a recent opinion. He said,

Neither a state nor the Federal Government can set up a church. Neither can pass laws which aid one religion, aid all religions, or prefer one religion over another. Neither can force nor influence a person to go to or to remain away from church against his will or force him to profess a belief or disbelief in any religion. No person can be punished for entertaining or for professing religious beliefs or disbeliefs, for church attendance or nonattendance. No tax in any amount, large or small, can be levied to support any religious activities or institutions, whatever they may be called, or whatever form they may adopt to teach or practice religion. Neither a state nor the Federal Government can, openly or secretly, participate in the affairs of any religious organizations or groups and vice versa. In the words of Jefferson, the clause against establishment of religion by law was intended to erect "a wall of separation between church and State."<sup>4</sup>

An example of the strict interpretation of the First Amendment was given, but not fully supported, by Mr. Justice Reed when he said,

The phrase "an establishment of religion" may have been intended by Congress to be aimed only at a state church. When the First Amendment was pending in Congress in substantially its present form, "Mr. Madison said, he apprehended the meaning of the words to be, that Congress should not establish a religion, and enforce the legal observation of it by law, nor compel men to worship God in any manner contrary to their conscience."<sup>5</sup>

Actual meaning is given to these amendments as they are applied by the courts in litigation involving "the freedoms." The Supreme Court of the United States is the final judge

<sup>4</sup>2 ALR2d 1547.

<sup>5</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 1564.



of the proper application of the First and Fourteenth Amendments, and has given its interpretations in opinions handed down in several cases involving public aid to religious education. Many of those cases have been reviewed in sections III and IV.

## II

### THE CONSTITUTION OF INDIANA

Operating within the limits defined by the Federal Constitution the highest laws for this state are incorporated within the Constitution of Indiana.

Constitutional provisions concerning religion are given in Article 1 and Article 8.

#### Article I. Sections 2 to 8:

Sec. 2. All men shall be secured in their natural right to worship Almighty God, according to the dictates of their own consciences.

Sec. 3. No law shall, in any case whatever, control the free exercise and enjoyment of religious opinions, or interfere with the rights of conscience.

Sec. 4. No preference shall be given, by law, to any creed, religious society, or mode of worship; and no man shall be compelled to attend, erect, or support, any place of worship, or to maintain any ministry, against his consent.

Sec. 5. No religious test shall be required, as a qualification for any office of trust or profit.

Sec. 6. No money shall be drawn from the treasury for the benefit of any religious or theological institution.

Sec. 7. No person shall be rendered incompetent as a witness, in consequence of his opinion on matters of religion.

Sec. 8. The mode of administering an oath or affirmation, shall be such as may be most consistent with, and binding upon, the conscience of the person, to whom such oath or affirmation may be administered.<sup>6</sup>

Section 6 of Article 1 is especially significant since it specifically prohibits public financial aid to religion. Thus, any use of the tax-supported school systems of the state to foster religious education could be challenged as unconstitutional. However,

<sup>6</sup>E. E. Ramsey, *History and Government of Indiana* (New York: Laidlaw Brothers, 1935), p. 115.

the courts must define what constitutes "public aid."

#### Article 8, Section 1.

Knowledge of learning, generally diffused throughout a community, being essential to the preservation of a free government; it shall be the duty of the General Assembly to encourage, by all suitable means, moral, intellectual, scientific, and agricultural improvement; and to provide, by law, for a general and uniform system of Common Schools, wherein tuition shall be without charge, and equally open to all.<sup>7</sup>

Section 1 of Article 8 is interpreted by many to prohibit religious education in Indiana's public schools through the establishment of "the preservation of free government" as the sole reason for organizing common schools.

Court cases involving interpretations of these provisions of the State Constitution were included in appropriate sections of section III.

## III

### STATUTES, DECISIONS, AND OPINIONS DIRECTLY APPLICABLE TO INDIANA SCHOOLS

#### Transportation

Religion is involved in school transportation when the question of transporting parochial school children arises.

The Acts of 1921 as amended in the Acts of 1933 say that the school trustee shall furnish free transportation to parochial school children from points on the regular public school bus route to a point on the regular route nearest or most convenient to the parochial school.<sup>8</sup>

In an opinion handed down by the Attorney General in 1936, the above law was interpreted to mean that the trustee or trustees were neither required nor authorized to transport parochial school pupils when an extra bus or conveyance would have to be used if such pupils were accommodated. The opinion also limited the intent of the law to students from

<sup>7</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 125.

<sup>8</sup>Acts 1921, ch. 253, sec. 2, as amended by Acts 1933 ch. 54, sec. 1.

private homes where transfers and reimbursements are not involved.<sup>9</sup>

Providing transportation for parochial school children might appear to violate both the State and Federal Constitutions. However, in the *Everson Case*,<sup>10</sup> the United States Supreme Court ruled that furnishing such transportation did not constitute public aid to a religious sect, but was merely a safety measure designed to protect the children.

#### Attendance

The Compulsory Attendance Law of 1921<sup>11</sup> gave children permission to attend church supported schools. In effect, the law said that children affected by the law must either attend public schools or other schools taught in the English language which are open to the inspection of state and local attendance and school officers. The length of terms of all schools must match the term of the public schools of the school district.

The above law gave legal status to an opinion given in 1920 by the Attorney General which stated, "Attendance at a school having a course of study substantially equal to the course of study prescribed for the public school, will alone be a compliance with the Indiana compulsory education law."<sup>12</sup>

Members of religious sects that do not condone medical treatment are protected from local regulations requiring vaccinations or medical examinations of the pupils attending the public schools. The 1921 law, cited above, permits evasion of such local regulations by a pupil whose parent or guardian presents a written objection to the local school authorities. However, in *Vonnegut v. Baun*<sup>13</sup> it was ruled that children not vac-

<sup>9</sup>Opinions Attorney General (1936), p. 415.

<sup>10</sup>*Everson v. Board of Education*, 330 U S 1, 91 L ed. 711, 67 S ct 504, 169 ALR 1392.

<sup>11</sup>Acts 1921, ch. 132, p. 337.

<sup>12</sup>Opinions Attorney General (1920), p. 305.

<sup>13</sup>*Vonnegut v. Baun*, 206 Ind. 172.



inated could be excluded from school by an emergency resolution of the board of health.

#### *Instruction*

*Bible.* An Indiana statute covers this subject in the following statement: "The Bible shall not be excluded from the public schools of Indiana."<sup>14</sup>

It was necessary to go outside Indiana for cases contesting the legality of the presence and use of the Bible in public schools.

In Georgia, it was ruled that the daily reading of the Bible and offering of prayer was not contrary to constitutional provisions.<sup>15</sup>

The Supreme Court of Colorado upheld the reading of the Bible without comment by the teacher.<sup>16</sup>

The highest court of California held that a King James version of the Bible was not a sectarian, partisan, or denominational publication, and its presence in school libraries did not violate California law.<sup>17</sup>

*Released time for religious education.* The statute governing released time programs in Indiana Schools was considered too detailed to summarize accurately. The complete text of the law follows:

If it is the wish of the parent, guardian or other person having control or legal custody of any child, that such child attend, for a period or periods to be determined by the local principal or superintendent of schools and not exceeding in the aggregate one hundred and twenty minutes in any week, a school for religious instruction, conducted and maintained by some church or association of churches, or by some association organized for religious instruction, and incorporated under the laws of this state, and which school shall not be conducted or maintained, either in whole or in part, by the use of any public funds raised by taxation; such child upon written request of the parent, guardian or other per-

son having legal custody may be permitted to attend such school for religious instruction and such permission shall be valid for not longer than the school year during which it is issued. Such school for religious instruction shall maintain records of attendance which shall at all times be open to the inspection of the public school attendance officers. Attendance at such school for religious instruction shall be given the same attendance credits at the public school.<sup>18</sup>

This law clearly indicates that the school must not give noticeable aid to released time programs. Classes in religious instruction are to be conducted in places located outside school property limits, and only those children whose parents have presented written requests are released from regular school studies.

After considering the implications brought out in section IV of this report, where a full discussion of released time programs is included, it seems apparent that the above law would be likely to survive scrutiny by the United States Supreme Court. There is a chance, however, that the high court would make an issue of the provisions calling for the keeping of attendance records, the inspecting of those records by the attendance officer, and the giving of attendance credits to participating pupils by the public school.

*Employment of teachers.* In outlining the power and duties of school boards, the Indiana General Assembly said that school employees shall be chosen without regard to religious or political beliefs.<sup>19</sup>

Our state supreme court has ruled that membership in a particular church or religious order can neither legally qualify nor disqualify a teacher.<sup>20</sup>

*Teacher garb.* The wearing of robes, by teachers, symbolic of the religious order to which they belong does not constitute sectarian teaching.<sup>21</sup> This attitude of an Indiana

court was concurred in by a New York court in 1936. The New York decision said that the mere wearing of religious garb did not violate any provision of the Constitution if the teacher refrained from sectarian teaching.<sup>22</sup>

*Textbooks.* Textbooks adopted for use in Indiana public schools must not contain material sectarian in character.<sup>23</sup>

The statutes which gave school corporations the authority to provide free textbooks to resident pupils were interpreted by the Attorney General to apply only to public school pupils.<sup>24</sup>

*Saluting the Flag.* The Supreme Court of the United States has ruled that a child attending a public school does not have to salute the Flag or give a pledge to the Flag if such an act is contrary to his religious beliefs.<sup>25</sup>

#### *Buildings*

*Use of church buildings by public school.* In *Johnson v. Boyd*<sup>26</sup> it was held by the court that there is no Indiana statute which would prohibit school trustees from leasing any suitable building in an emergency.

The school corporation is in possession, regardless of the ownership of the buildings, when it employs the teachers and prescribes the course of study.<sup>27</sup>

*Equipment.* If a church building is leased by the school corporation the presence of religious pictures and other equipment of sectarian nature does not constitute religious teaching.<sup>28</sup>

*Maintenance.* In an emergency, the maintenance of buildings leased from

<sup>14</sup>Acts of 1863, ch. 1, p. 5.

<sup>15</sup>*Wilkerson v. Rome*, 1922, 152 Ga., 762, 110 SE 895, 20 ALR 1554.

<sup>16</sup>*Vollmar v. Stanley*, 1927, 81 Colo., 276, 255, p. 610.

<sup>17</sup>*Evans v. Selma Union High School District*, 1924, 193 Cal. 222 P 801, 31 ALR 1121.

<sup>18</sup>Acts 1921, ch. 132, p. 537, added, Acts 1943, ch. 225, sec. 1, p. 660.

<sup>19</sup>Acts 1931, ch. 149, p. 524.

<sup>20</sup>*Johnson v. Boyd*, 217 Ind. 348.

<sup>21</sup>*Loc. cit.*

<sup>22</sup>*Gerhardt v. Heid*, 1936, 66 ND 444, 267 NW 127.

<sup>23</sup>Acts 1889, ch. 50, p. 74, as amended, Acts 1917, ch. 158, sec. 1, p. 441.

<sup>24</sup>Opinions Attorney General (1941), p. 284.

<sup>25</sup>*West Virginia State Board of Education, etc. et al. v. Barnette, Stull, and McClure*, 69 Supreme Court Reporter 1178.

<sup>26</sup>*Johnson v. Boyd*, 217 Ind. 384.

<sup>27</sup>*Loc. cit.*

<sup>28</sup>*Loc. cit.*

a church may be assumed by the school corporation.<sup>29</sup>

#### *Health and Safety*

*State health services.* The services of the State Board of Health shall be made available to the public schools and other schools.<sup>30</sup>

*School lunches.* Under the National School Lunch Act, of 1946, federal funds were made available to public and private or parochial schools.<sup>31</sup>

*Safety.* The statute discussed under Attendance in this chapter provides transportation, under certain conditions, for parochial school children.

In the *Everson Case*<sup>32</sup> the Supreme Court of the United States ruled that the safety of all school children is a public responsibility.

### IV

#### RELEASED TIME FOR RELIGIOUS EDUCATION

On March 8, 1948, the Supreme Court of the United States, in its decision in the case involving the People of the State of Illinois ex rel. Vashti McCollum, Appt., v. Board of Education of School District No. 71, Champaign County, Illinois et al.,<sup>33</sup> gave the most recent and authoritative basis for judging the legality of public school released time programs for religious education. Most of the material used in this chapter came from the decision, the majority and concurring opinions, and the dissenting opinion presented in the McCollum Case.

#### *I. Historical background of released time programs.*

The material used in this historical background was taken exclusively from Mr. Justice Frankfurter's<sup>34</sup> con-

curring opinion in the McCollum Case.

Churches became dissatisfied with having only Sunday Schools for the children. Out of various plans evolved the week-day church school, held on one or more afternoons a week after public school hours. "But children continued to be children; they wanted to play when school was out, particularly when other children were free to do so."<sup>35</sup>

The released time movement was initiated in a speech made in 1905 by Dr. George U. Wenner. He said that the public school monopolizes the child's time and that the school should release to the church a fair share of that time.<sup>36</sup>

It was not until 1941, however, that the first released time program was inaugurated. The schools of Gary, Indiana, started the movement when Superintendent Wirt offered to release, on a voluntary basis, students from the school's play period for religious instruction in the various churches of Gary.<sup>37</sup>

From that beginning in Gary, various types of released time programs were participated in by nearly two million public school pupils of some 2,200 communities in the year 1947.<sup>38</sup>

#### *II. The McCollum Case.*

##### *Summary of the Supreme Court Decision.*

A local board of education in Illinois agreed to the giving of religious instruction in the schools under a "released time" arrangement whereby pupils whose parents signed "request cards" were permitted to attend religious instruction classes conducted during regular school hours in the school building by outside teachers furnished by a religious council representing the various faiths, subject to the approval and supervision of the superintendent of schools. Attendance records were kept and reported to the school authorities in same way as for other classes; and pupils not

attending the religious instruction classes were required to continue their regular secular studies.

The Court held, in an opinion by Black, J., that this arrangement was in violation of the constitutional principle of separation of church and state, as expressed in the First Amendment and made applicable to the states by the Fourteenth Amendment, and accordingly that the state courts below had acted erroneously in refusing relief to the complainant, parent and taxpayer, against the continued use of school buildings for such religious instruction.

This conclusion was supported further in a separate concurring opinion by Frankfurter, J., in which the historical backgrounds of the principle of separation of church and state, and or "released time" arrangements, are considered at length. Justice Jackson, Rutledge, and Burton joined in this opinion; and Justices Rutledge and Burton also concurred in the report written by Justice Black.

Jackson, J., in an additional opinion, although concurring in the result, expressed doubt as to the standing of the complainant to raise the question at issue, and also felt that the relief granted, prohibiting all religious instruction in the schools, was too broad and indefinite.

Reed, J., dissented on the ground that the co-operative "released time" arrangement did not involve either an "establishment of religion" or "aid" to religion by the state, sufficient to justify the Supreme Court in interfering with local legislation and customs.<sup>39</sup>

This paper has made no attempt to interpret the effect of this case on released time programs. The Justices of the Supreme Court could not agree among themselves upon the extent of the implications of their decision upon other such programs operating in the United States. However, the reference used extensively in this chapter did include the following annotation:

In considering the effect of the McCollum Case, the following considerations should be kept in mind: (1) In the two above majority or concurring opinions, the court attempted to voice its disapproval of the particular scheme before it for determination, and no other; (2) the "released time" religious instruction classes in-

<sup>39</sup>2 ALR 2d 1538.

<sup>29</sup>*Loc. cit.*

<sup>30</sup>Acts 1947, ch. 218, vol. 1, p. 784.

<sup>31</sup>The Administrative Handbook for the Schools of Indiana, State of Indiana Department of Public Instruction Bulletin No. 200, Indianapolis 1948, p. 28.

<sup>32</sup>*Everson v. Board of Education, op. cit.*

<sup>33</sup>*Illinois ex rel. McCollum v. Board of Education*, 333 US 203, 92 L ed (Adv 451), 68 S Ct. 461, 2 ALR2d 1538.

<sup>34</sup>*Ibid.*, pp. 1546-1558.

<sup>35</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 1555.

<sup>36</sup>*Loc. cit.*

<sup>37</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 1554.

<sup>38</sup>*Loc. cit.*



involved were conducted during regular school hours and in the public school building; (5) the factual set-up was such that the state tax-supported school system was held to provide pupils for the religious classes through use of the state's compulsory school machinery. It may be noted that the earlier state court decisions, discussed hereinafter, where released time systems were upheld, all involved religious instruction outside the school buildings, and not within the publicly tax-supported school buildings themselves.<sup>40</sup>

In an attempt to summarize the status of religious education in the public schools following the release of the McCollum decision, the Research Division<sup>41</sup> of the National Education Association conducted a questionnaire survey in December of 1948. Questionnaires were sent to 5,100 local school superintendents. After tabulating the 2,639 replies, it was found that 61.4 per cent of the schools reporting had never used any formal plan of religious education; 11.8 per cent had discontinued their programs; and 26.8 per cent did have some type of planned program in operation. These figures indicate that three in four of the school systems in the survey do not foster religious education.

Where programs were in operation, the survey showed that 15.3 per cent of the school systems held formal classes in the school building during school hours; 4.1 per cent of the systems allowed use of the buildings after school hours, but withheld official aid in any form; 35 per cent released individual pupils for religious instruction elsewhere, but did assume responsibility for attendance; 33.1 per cent used the preceding type of program, but did not check attendance; 4.2 per cent of the participating schools dismissed all pupils on a given day, but placed official restrictions upon the use of free time; while 8.3 per cent of the programs were not easily classified as to type.<sup>42</sup>

<sup>40</sup>2 ALR 2d 1572.

<sup>41</sup>"Status of Religious Education in the Public Schools," NEA Research Division, *NEA Journal*, 38:610-11, Nov. 1949.

<sup>42</sup>*Loc. cit.*

From the above data the NEA survey was able to conclude:

The total picture, therefore, adds up to 75.2 per cent of 2639 communities without any kind of program associated with the schools and an additional 11 per cent, where programs exist, having little or no official participation by the school system.<sup>43</sup>

The questionnaires revealed that the Supreme Court's decision in the McCollum Case was the major cause behind the abandonment of religious-education programs in 510 of the reporting schools. One in ten of the schools still offering planned programs had revised them because of the same decision.<sup>44</sup>

In its own interpretation of the McCollum decision the Research Division of the NEA said,

By implication, at least, the court ruled that to be constitutionally acceptable formal religious-education programs must be held off school property and without the cooperation of the school system.<sup>45</sup>

#### SUMMARY

The Federal Constitution forbids a national or state law which would tend to establish a religion or which would prohibit complete religious freedom to the people of the United States. The Supreme Court has consistently interpreted the Constitution to mean that any form of public aid is prohibited to any and all religious denominations.

In Indiana's Constitution religious freedom is guaranteed, and the use of public money to support any religious sect is specifically prohibited. The General Assembly is charged with the responsibility of encouraging moral improvement, but must do so without intruding upon the religious tenets of the citizens.

Indiana law upholds the right of parents to send their children to parochial schools that approximate the educational offerings of the public schools.

While parochial schools are denied public financial assistance, public funds may be expended to promote

<sup>43</sup>*Loc. cit.*

<sup>44</sup>*Ibid.*, p. 611.

<sup>45</sup>*Loc. cit.*

the health and safety of parochial school children.

Instruction in the public schools of Indiana shall be non-sectarian in nature, and the text-books must be free of sectarian material.

Although the legal status of released time programs in general is far from clear, the McCollum Case decision implied that classes in religious instruction should not be held on school property during school hours, and that school officials should not attempt to check attendance in such classes.

The fact that public aid is prohibited in the field of religious education does not settle the problem. Only the courts can define public aid and decide when aid to the child passes into the realm of aid to a religious sect.

With over 250 separate and distinct religious sects operating within the United States, non-sectarian teaching appears impossible. A teacher cannot instruct children in either history, health, science, literature, or good moral conduct without risking criticism by at least one of the religious denominations represented in the community.

A school administrator would do well to stick closely to prevailing laws always in making any decision involving religion in his school. Where laws do not clearly cover the particular problem facing the administrator, he should obtain a ruling from the State Department of Public Instruction or an opinion from the Attorney General.

## Class Size Control - - -

(Continued from page 49)

but these are recognized here and do not seem to present and immediate difficulty.

(4) Every effort should be made at the present time to limit classes to a maximum of 40.

(5) Only under exceptional circumstances should prepared classes larger than 40 be allowed unless a lecture system with "assistants" is adopted for some courses.

(6) It would seem that some tech-



nique could be devised to spread the load more evenly when two or more sections are being offered. At the present time an immediate remedy might be to close a section as soon as it reached within 5 of the maximum set for that class. No more would be added to that section until all other sections were at the same figure.

(7) In the interests of good teaching small rather than larger classes are desirable. Classes that run beyond 25 or 30 do not usually provide the optimum environment for good teacher-pupil relationships.

(8) It should be the aim of the college to work toward a class size average of 25 to 30 with 35 being in the future the maximum for all classes which fall into the prepared classification.

(9) If a course is scheduled, and if

in the weeks preceding registration, the tally sheets indicate that the class may be small, great care should be exercised not to give the impression that the course will be discontinued on account of light demand. Even if a minimum number of students has been set for the course, the decision to drop such a course should probably not be made until after registration has been completed and all the factors involved have been studied. Such factors may include:

(a) the needs (meeting graduation, or other requirements) of one of more students;

(b) the desirability of encouraging the building up of work in the area involved. This is especially significant in relation to graduate work; and,

(c) the total student load of the teacher.

CHART II  
CLASS SIZES AS SET BY THE DEAN

TOTAL	SOC. SCI.	SCIENCE	PHYS. ED.	OR.	MUSIC	MIL. SCI.	MATH.	LIB. SCI.	IND. ARTS	HOME EC.	FOR. LANG.	ENGLISH	EDUCATION	BUS. ED.	ART
60												1			
55												1			
50				1	9	4							19	7	
48														7	
46							1						1		
45					10		15		1		6	23	9	19	
40								3				7	3	5	8
36														2	
35					1					8	9	22	1	5	
32									1						
30					1	11			7			1	1	1	
29															
25					1				4		1	1	1	4	1
24										3					
22										3					
20					6				5			2		1	
16									1						
15									1				1	1	
10												1			
8									1						
7									3						
1											6				
nl					4	8						3	5		

(10) If courses are listed on the schedule, even for summer terms, they should be dropped only if there is no serious disadvantage to students and instructor. Care should be taken to schedule only those courses which are relatively sure to attract enough students. Departmental policy in this respect should probably be analyzed by the Dean, President, or Faculty Committee from time to time.

(11) Small classes of even less than 5 are not in themselves undesirable if they are designed to fit the particular curriculum needs of some students and provide suitable area coverage. Such classes might be allowed for and permitted to run. The graduate program deserves special consideration and it seems unfortunate that the present limited budget does not permit small classes to operate. Such small classes are not at all unusual in most graduate schools throughout the country and if the graduate offerings here are to be attractive and diversified small classes would probably be in order for some time to come.

Schomer - - -

(Continued from page 55)

ence in industrial arts. The technical nature of each area should be considered in determining the amount of training needed. The number of terms of training recommended above are for those with no previous contacts with the media of any of the major areas of industrial arts.

In re-evaluating the content of college industrial arts courses, recognition should be given to the distribution of time for the various class activities. The time devoted to any industrial arts class activity should be flexible enough to meet the needs of the individual, the class, and the situation. However, a proper balance should be maintained at all times. Major emphasis of a shop course should be given to developing skills through exercises and project making. However, from five to 20 per cent of the time allotted for shop classes should be devoted to each of

the following activities: field trips, related information discussion, technical information discussion, and use of visual aids and materials. Other activities that may receive some consideration are work on school property, assigned reference reading, and preparation of required notebooks.

3. Welding, plastics, and electricity should be considered as major areas of industrial arts along with drawing, woodwork, printing, machine shop, and sheet metal in planning college industrial arts curricula. A large percentage of industrial arts teachers in Indiana have either taught the areas of welding, plastics, and electricity, or would like to teach them, but do not feel qualified because of the lack of training. Perhaps a basic course in each of the major areas plus a course in the area of the arts and crafts should be required as a part of the general industrial arts education of a prospective teacher in order more nearly to insure the broadening of the public school industrial arts curricula.

4. Industrial arts professional courses in general are not meeting the needs of the public school industrial arts teachers in Indiana. In order to determine the exact nature of the needs of the teachers with respect to each professional course offered, the colleges should contact their respective graduates for their suggestions. Information concerning the sequence of professional courses should also be gathered. The suggested content will determine, to some extent, the amount of time that should be devoted to each professional course. Courses needing immediate attention by the colleges are courses dealing with organization, preparation of instructional materials, methods, tests and measurements, and educational and vocational guidance.

Elder - - -

(Continued from page 46)

"After eight years of most exacting labor, Woodrow Wilson sits broken and weary in the White House, his work reviled, and his character subjected to the most venomous attacks.

Is it after all a crime to be president? The history of the Presidents of the United States testifies to the startling conclusion that in the eyes of contemporaries the President is always a contemptible man, more sinning than sinned against. The men who have reached what should be the pinnacle of honor have always been condemned and excoriated in the bitterest fashion. Their private lives have been the food and drink of scandal mongers; their motives in performing their duties have been suspected. Washington, revered as the father of our country, was the target of the most scurrilous attacks. Lincoln, loved of all men in 1920, was a fiend in 1865. Scorned by his own Cabinet, branded as a traitor and an autocrat, he was finally murdered by an "avenger of the people" . . . The next president will not escape. He, too, must run the scorching gauntlet of abuse for the next four years. The crime of being president will be impressed upon him each passing day. . . . And whether he retires quietly like George Washington, is brutally killed like Lincoln, Garfield, and McKinley, or must be put in an invalid's litter like Woodrow Wilson, he will realize that the honor and glory of the Presidency is a fiction which is recognized only in posterity."

Numerous suggestions are made by various factions from time to time to remedy such conditions as that described by Watterson, as well as other blemishes which characterize our civilization. Each group insists that in its own particular hobby, ridden voluntarily or through compulsion by all the people, would remove all blight from our citizenship. Some think that a law passed by Congress or the legislature, making undesirable acts criminal offenses, will result in the disappearance of such acts; some think that a pledge of allegiance to the flag on the part of the public school teachers of the country will cure the ills of society; others believe that perfection would follow a one hundred percent enforcement of all the laws now on the statute books. School people are agreed that law

observance should replace law enforcement and the problem is, how shall such substitution be accomplished?

Many teachers understand the problem but fail to agree on the method of attack to be used. Leading exponents of each academic division of the curriculum are prone to believe that if the prescribed dose of their particular type of subject-matter were doubled, or, perhaps tripled, the desired results would be forthcoming. English teachers want more time in which to put their remedy across and they want all other departments to lend a hand; social science teachers, before they were given more time, were sure that they could remedy the situation if only given a chance; other groups have pursued, and are still pursuing, equally fictitious delusions. The correct method of attack must be more fundamental and more inclusive than any yet attempted since society became so complex; and it must begin with the child under six years of age in the kindergarten or nursery school.

"The Relation Between Kindergarten Training and Success in the Elementary School," *The Elementary School Journal*, December, 1927. Elder, Harry E. and Risser, Faye.

Koenker - - -

(Continued from page 50)

from the employing institutions to to apply on an advanced degree at another institution of higher learning if that institution approved the arrangement. Only 8 (11%) of the institutions denied faculty members the privilege of taking graduate courses from the employing institutions to apply on an advanced degree at another institution.

The responses to the final item "If there has been a change in your policy relative to any of these points since 1950, please indicate approximate date of change," revealed that sixteen (22%) of the 73 institutions had made definite changes in policy relative to faculty members taking

graduate work from the employing institution. All of the changes in policy except one have been made in the period between 1944-1949. An analysis of the changes reported on the questionnaire indicated a trend in the direction of more closely limiting faculty members the privilege of taking graduate training from the employing institution.

Thirty-five (48%) of the institutions had not made any change in policy since 1930 and 22 (33%) of the institutions failed to answer the question.

#### SUMMARY

The problem of this study was to discover the practices of colleges and universities relative to granting full-time faculty members the privilege of taking graduate training from the employing institution.

Questionnaires were sent to all American colleges and universities offering graduate training leading to both the master's and doctor's degrees. The findings were based on the returns of 73 (78%) of the 94 colleges and universities offering graduate training leading to both the master's and doctor's degrees.

An analysis of the findings showed that:

1. Sixty-three (86%) of the 73 colleges and universities grant full-time faculty members the privilege of earning advanced degrees from the employing institution. This privilege was usually restricted to the rank of instructor and below.

2. Twenty-four (71%) of the 34 colleges and universities that had provision in the salary schedule to grant increased pay for graduate work completed beyond an advanced degree permitted full-time faculty members to take these graduate courses from the employing institution.

3. Sixty-five (89%) of the 73 colleges and universities permit full-time faculty members to take graduate courses from the employing institution to apply on an advanced degree at another institution.

4. Sixteen (22%) of the 73 colleges and universities have made re-

cent changes in policy relative to faculty members taking graduate training from the employing institution. An analysis of the reported changes indicated a trend in the direction of more closely limiting full-time faculty members the privilege of taking graduate training from the employing institution.

## Abstract of Thesis

Boyll, Harold Eugene, *The Social, Civic, Political, and Religious Activities of Teachers Permitted and Preferred by Trustees As Hiring Officials*. August, 1950. 34 pp. (No. 699)

*Problem.* The purpose of this study was to determine the attitudes of township trustees as hiring officials toward the (1) social, (2) civic, (3) political, and (4) religious activities of the teachers they hire.

*Method.* The normative survey method of procedure was used to collect data for this study. The overall procedure was the personal interview.

Information for the questions that were presented to the trustees was gained from three major sources:

1. From discussions with experienced teachers concerning regulations and restrictions that had been imposed on them.

2. From discussions that had developed in college classes attended by the investigator.

3. From authoritative literature.

The questions were compiled in an interview form. The interview form was used during the interview procedure because of its length and detail. The questions were presented in the same order to each interviewee to insure that the same implications were presented with each question.

*Findings.* A majority of the trustees permitted teachers of either sex to smoke away from school, but not at school. Moderate drinking was permitted by most trustees if it were done at home or at a private club, but not in a local tavern. This was true for either sex. Only a small minority objected to teachers' dancing. Dating

in the community was given unanimous approval for men and women. Gambling by either sex when in private was sanctioned by 50 per cent of the trustees; however, very few would permit the practice in public. Only one of the forty trustees interviewed objected to social card playing.

The same civic activities were expected of both men and women teachers. Most trustees expected teachers to attend after-school functions. Participation in civic projects in the community was demanded by 50 per cent of the trustees, but few required monetary contributions to the projects. Residence in the township while teaching was desired by most trustees but, because of the lack of suitable housing facilities in the respective communities, few demanded it. Most trustees do not require teachers to vote in public elections.

A small majority of the trustees permitted both men and women teachers to be active political party members and to campaign openly for a specific candidate. Either sex was permitted by a vast majority of trustees to attend political rallies.

A large majority of the trustees made no demands on either sex concerning church membership, active religious participation, or church attendance. A small minority would not hire persons of certain religious faiths.

None of the trustees considered divorce a barrier to employment. The marital status of teachers was of little or no significance to hiring officials. Whether or not the teacher had children was not considered an important factor in employment. Previous teaching experience was considered an important factor for employment by only 50 per cent of the trustees. Although a minority preferred that a teacher have a Master's Degree, none of them considered it important.

A majority of the trustees thought that the social, civic, political, and religious activities of teachers should be no more restricted than the activities of persons in other professions.



## NATIONAL TEACHER EXAMINATIONS

The National Teacher Examinations, prepared and administered annually by Educational Testing Service, will be given at testing centers throughout the United States on Saturday, February 17, 1951.

At the one-day testing session a candidate may take the Common Examinations, which include tests in General Culture, Mental Abilities and Basic Skills, and Professional Information; and one or two of nine Optional Examinations, designed to demonstrate mastery of subject matter to be taught. The college which a candidate is attending or the school system in which he is seeking employment will advise him whether he must offer the National Teacher Examinations and which of the tests he should take.

Application forms, and a Bulletin of information describing registration procedure and containing sample test questions, may be obtained from college officials, school superintendents, or directly from the National Teacher Examinations, Educational Testing Service, P.O. Box 592, Princeton, New Jersey. A complete application, accompanied by the proper examination fee, should reach the ETS office not later than January 19, 1951.